



Jeffrey, M. R., & Glendinning, P. (2012). Grazing-sliding bifurcations, the border collision normal form, and the curse of dimensionality for nonsmooth bifurcation theory. Manuscript in preparation.

Early version, also known as pre-print

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Grazing-sliding bifurcations, the border collision normal form, and the curse of dimensionality for nonsmooth bifurcation theory

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In this paper we show that the border collision normal form of continuous but non-differentiable discrete time maps is affected by a curse of dimensionality: it is impossible to reduce the study of the general case to low dimensions, since in every dimension the bifurcation produces fundamentally different attractors (contrary to the case of smooth systems). In particular we show that the n -dimensional border collision normal form can have invariant sets of dimension k for integer k from 0 to n . We also show that the border collision normal form is related to grazing-sliding bifurcations of switching dynamical systems. This implies that the dynamics of these two apparently distinct bifurcations (one for discrete time dynamics, the other for continuous time dynamics) are closely related and hence that a similar curse of dimensionality holds for this bifurcation.

PACS numbers: 05.45.-a

Keywords: non-smooth bifurcation, attractor, grazing-sliding, border-collision, piecewise smooth systems

I. INTRODUCTION

Despite their obvious lack of appeal analytically, piecewise-smooth differential equations have found application in mechanics, biological modelling, computer science, control, and electrical engineering. Under generic conditions, the bifurcations that such models can undergo, so-called *discontinuity induced bifurcations*, are known to fit within a reasonably small number of normal forms, prominent amongst which are the sliding bifurcations in non-differentiable flows [4], and the border collisions in non-differentiable maps [2, 14]. Except in low dimensional cases there is still no

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obvious classification of the dynamics near these bifurcations and there is a risk, in consequence, that the literature becomes filled with ever more complicated examples.

In this paper we show that there is a link between two of these normal forms, in the sense that one of them arises as an induced map in the analysis of the other. We hope that this is the beginning of a more coherent description of the inter-relatedness of different models, and in particular, that this will aid in the understanding of bifurcations in high dimensional nonsmooth systems. We also discuss the possible attractors that can occur in these models. Our results suggest that the bifurcation theory of piecewise-smooth systems suffers from the curse of dimensionality [1], in that the description of a bifurcation on \mathbb{R}^n depends crucially on n . This is in marked contrast to the case of local bifurcation theory for smooth systems, where the centre manifold theorem (see e.g. [10]) ensures that only the eigenvectors and eigenvalues, together with some genericity and transversality conditions, determine any invariant sets that are created at the bifurcation.

The border collision normal form, derived by Nusse and Yorke [14] in two-dimensions, and by di Bernardo [2, 5] in higher dimensions, describes bifurcations of fixed points in non-differentiable maps. It arises when phase space is divided into two regions by a switching surface, and differentiable discrete time dynamics is defined separately in each region, by maps that are continuous across the switching surface but whose Jacobians may be discontinuous. If a fixed point in one region varies with changing parameters so that it lies on the switching surface, then a border collision is said to occur. The normal form is a piecewise linear map. This has been studied in its own right before its appearance as a normal form in piecewise-smooth systems, see e.g. [13], and its two dimensional normal form is

$$\begin{pmatrix} z'_1 \\ z'_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{cases} A_L \begin{pmatrix} z_1 \\ z_2 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \nu \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} & \text{if } z_1 < 0 \\ A_R \begin{pmatrix} z_1 \\ z_2 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \nu \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} & \text{if } z_1 > 0 \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

where

$$A_L = \begin{pmatrix} T_L & 1 \\ -D_L & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad A_R = \begin{pmatrix} T_R & 1 \\ -D_R & 0 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (2)$$

In higher dimensions (\mathbb{R}^n) the map remains affine and both A_L and A_R can be put into observer

canonical form [2]

$$A_j = \begin{pmatrix} \omega_{j1} & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ \omega_{j2} & 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ \omega_{j3} & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \omega_{j(n-1)} & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 1 \\ \omega_{jn} & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad (3)$$

with j taking the two labels L and R (so $w_{j1} = T_j$ and $w_{j2} = -D_j$ in two dimensions), while the obvious additive constant becomes the column vector with components

$$(\nu, 0, 0, \dots, 0, 0).$$

Note that only the sign of ν can influence the dynamic behaviour of the model: by a linearly rescaling of the variables z_j the parameter ν may be chosen without loss of generality to be either -1 , 0 , or 1 .

The *grazing-sliding* normal form describes a bifurcation of piecewise-smooth flows (*Filippov* systems). As in the border collision normal form, phase space is divided into two regions by a switching surface, and in this case, differentiable continuous time dynamics is defined separately in each region by ordinary differential equations. If a periodic orbit in one region becomes tangent to the switching surface at an isolated point and some critical value of a parameter, and the vector field defining the dynamics in the other region points towards the switching surface at this point, a grazing-sliding bifurcation is said to occur. The term *sliding* refers to nearby solutions that typically include segments of sliding along the switching surface. In two dimensions these bifurcations can be described relatively easily [4, 12], but in three dimensions the situation is already considerably more complicated [7, 8]. Here we consider the case of grazing-sliding bifurcations in \mathbb{R}^n , $n \geq 4$.

In the next section we describe the conditions for a grazing-sliding bifurcation to occur in piecewise-smooth systems in \mathbb{R}^n (see e.g. [4]), and show how to reduce this to an $(n-2)$ -dimensional return mapping, following the procedure adopted in [7] for $n = 3$. In section III we treat the four dimensional case, showing the formal reduction to the border collision normal form (1), under certain conditions. In section IV we give specific examples that show these conditions can be satisfied. Sections IV and V generalize the previous two sections to higher dimensions. In section VII we describe how the n -dimensional border collision normal form of di Bernardo [2] can have invariant sets of any given non-negative integer dimension less than or equal to n .

II. GRAZING-SLIDING IN \mathbb{R}^n

The piecewise-smooth systems we consider are defined by two sets of smooth differential equations whose regions of definition are separated by a smooth manifold Σ , the switching surface. We write these as

$$(\dot{x}, \dot{y}, \dot{\underline{z}}) = \begin{cases} f_+(x, y, \underline{z}; \mu) & \text{if } h(x, y, \underline{z}; \mu) > 0, \\ f_-(x, y, \underline{z}; \mu) & \text{if } h(x, y, \underline{z}; \mu) < 0, \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

where f_{\pm} are smooth functions of the variables (x, y, \underline{z}) and a parameter μ . It is useful to think of f_+ and f_- each being defined on the whole of \mathbb{R}^n . We have separated out $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$, and $\underline{z} = (z_1, z_2, \dots, z_{n-2}) \in \mathbb{R}^{n-2}$, so that x and y can be chosen as follows (see Figure 1). Without loss of generality, y can be chosen so that the switching surface is given by

$$\Sigma = \{(x, y, \underline{z}) \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid y = 0\}.$$

Then x is chosen such that the surface

$$\Pi = \{(x, y, \underline{z}) \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid x = 0\}$$

is the locus of points where

$$f_+^{(y)}(x, y, \underline{z}; \mu) = 0, \quad (5)$$

using the notation $f^{(y)}$ to denote the y component of a vector f (and similarly for $f^{(x)}$, and so on).

We assume that

$$f_+^{(x)}(0, 0, \underline{0}; 0) > 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial f_+^{(y)}}{\partial x}(0, 0, \underline{0}; 0) > 0, \quad (6)$$

so the surface Π is the locus of tangential intersections of the vector field f_+ with $y = 0$, where f_+ curves quadratically away from the switching surface. Since $f_+^{(x)}(0, 0, \underline{0}; 0) \neq 0$, Π is also transverse to the flow of f_+ at the origin. Therefore Π can be used as a local section to define a Poincaré map for the flow in the vector field f_+ . Hence we define a return map

$$P_{\Pi} : \Pi \times \mathbb{R} \mapsto \Pi,$$

assuming f_+ is defined over the whole of \mathbb{R}^n , neglecting for the moment the switch at $y = 0$.

A grazing bifurcation is said to occur when a periodic orbit is tangent to the switching surface, Σ , at an isolated point and a critical value of a parameter. We now assume that a grazing bifurcation takes place at $(x, y, \underline{z}) = (0, 0, \underline{0})$ when $\mu = 0$, and that the grazing periodic orbit is a fixed point

of the map P_Π . We also assume a parametric transversality condition, namely that the fixed point of P_Π moves through $y = 0$ with non-zero velocity as μ passes through zero; more detail is given in the Appendix (see also [3, 4]).

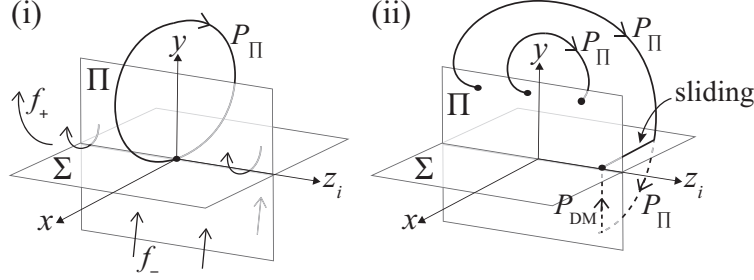


FIG. 1: (i) The grazing periodic orbit, in coordinates $(x, y, \underline{z}) = (x, y, (z_1, z_2, \dots))$, with vector fields f_+ and f_- either side of the switching surface Σ . (ii) The return map P_Π on Π is valid for $y > 0$, and in $y < 0$ a correction P_{DM} accounts for the occurrence of sliding.

Whilst the flow in $y > 0$ defines the grazing part of a grazing-sliding bifurcation, the *sliding* part is furnished by also considering the properties of f_- . We assume $f_-^{(y)}(0, 0, \underline{0}; 0) > 0$, so that f_- points locally towards Σ . Considering also the sign of $f_+^{(y)}$, by (5) we have $f_+^{(y)}(x, 0, \underline{z}; \mu) < 0$ in $x < 0$, so that there is a region of values of x on Σ on which both vector fields f_\pm point towards Σ . This confines the flow of (4) to a sliding component on Σ , which is generally modelled by taking the linear combination of f_+ and f_- that lies tangent to Σ . This sliding motion terminates on the surface $x = 0$ (in $y = 0$) where $f_+^{(y)}$ changes sign, so that when it reaches Π the flow lifts off from Σ back into $y > 0$.

Details of how to define sliding solutions are given in any standard text (e.g. [5, 6], see also Appendix A). The important point now is that, when sliding is taken into account, we can reduce the model of the dynamics near the grazing orbit to an $(n - 2)$ -dimensional return map on the surface $\Pi \cap \Sigma$ ($x = y = 0$). The return map $P_\Pi : \Pi \mapsto \Pi$ neglects the switch at $y = 0$, in particular the sliding motion that brings the flow to $x = 0$. This is easily corrected by composing P_Π with a local reset

$$P_{DM} : \Pi \times \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \Pi \cap \Sigma,$$

called a Poincaré Discontinuity Map [4]. The parameter dependence of P_{DM} lies in the nonlinear terms, so the linearization of the P_{DM} used below is independent of the parameter. The composition $P_{DM} \circ P_\Pi^k$, for appropriate k (where the y -component of P_Π^k lies in $y < 0$), gives a μ -parameterized return map on the set $\Pi \cap \Sigma$, which is the intersection of the return plane Π with the sliding surface

on Σ , and also the locus of solutions that lift off into $y > 0$ from the sliding surface. This map is piecewise continuous (discontinuities corresponding to orbits undergoing grazing). Essentially P_Π is applied to a point $(0, 0, \underline{z}) \in \Pi \cap \Sigma$, and iterated until the y -component of $P_\Pi^k(0, 0, \underline{z}; \mu)$ becomes negative for the first time. Then P_{DM} is applied to bring the solution back to where it would have intersected $\Pi \cap \Sigma$ had the sliding component been taken into account.

This informal account is enough to make the following sections comprehensible if the reader is prepared to take the stated linearizations of P_Π and P_{DM} on trust. The omitted details are given in the Appendix, together with a discussion about the choice of coordinates. In particular, regarding the Poincaré map P_Π , we are implicitly assuming here that, except for the point $(x, y, \underline{z}) = (0, 0, \underline{0})$, the grazing periodic orbit lies only in $y > 0$. This can be relaxed to allow entry to $y \leq 0$ far away from $(x, y, \underline{z}) = (0, 0, \underline{0})$, provided certain transversality conditions, and we remark on this in Section VIII. Regarding the discontinuity map P_{DM} , a peculiarity of grazing-sliding is that the derivative of P_{DM} is nonzero at $y = 0$, in contrast to the maps associated with other codimension one sliding bifurcations [4, 5], implying that they are not affected by much of the interesting behaviour that we find here for grazing-sliding. In the next section we give explicit forms for P_Π and P_{DM} in four dimensions, followed by examples, before giving general n -dimensional forms in Section V.

III. GRAZING-SLIDING BIFURCATIONS IN FOUR DIMENSIONS

Consider a system of four variables $(x, y, z_1, z_2) \in \mathbb{R}^4$ as described in the previous section, so that they vary in time forming a periodic orbit that grazes from $y > 0$ when $\mu = 0$. The linearization of the return map P_Π close to the periodic orbit can be described in observer canonical form (see Appendix A) as

$$\begin{pmatrix} y' \\ z'_1 \\ z'_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a & 1 & 0 \\ b & 0 & 1 \\ c & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} y \\ z_1 \\ z_2 \end{pmatrix} + \mu \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (7)$$

After each iteration, if $y' > 0$ then the flow misses the switching surface and the map is iterated again. If $y' < 0$ then P_Π neglects the fact that the flow has reached the switching surface a little before the intersection with $x = 0$. To correct this, the value of y' needs to be adjusted using the Poincaré Discontinuity Map to take the solution back to the sliding surface $y = 0$, and then evolve it along the switching surface to the next point at which the solution can leave the sliding surface, viz. $x = y = 0$. Expanding solutions as power series in the (small) time taken to make

this adjustment leads to the general form for the linearization of P_{DM}

$$\begin{pmatrix} y'' \\ z_1'' \\ z_2'' \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \alpha & 1 & 0 \\ \beta & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} y' \\ z_1' \\ z_2' \end{pmatrix}. \quad (8)$$

If a solution starts on the surface Π with $y = 0$ (the ‘lift-off’ surface $\Pi \cap \Sigma$), the return map (7) brings the trajectory from $(0, z_1, z_2)$ back to Π at

$$(z_1 + \mu, z_2, 0).$$

If $z_1 + \mu < 0$, the linearized Poincaré discontinuity mapping (8) brings the solution back to $x = 0$ with

$$(z_1'', z_2'') = (\alpha(z_1 + \mu) + z_2, \beta(z_1 + \mu)). \quad (9)$$

If $z_1 + \mu > 0$ then the modelled trajectory lies entirely in $y > 0$ during this part of its motion and the return map (7) is applied again, giving

$$(a(z_1 + \mu) + z_2 + \mu, b(z_1 + \mu) + z_2, c(z_1 + \mu)).$$

Now, if $a(z_1 + \mu) + z_2 + \mu > 0$ the solution goes round in $y > 0$ again, whilst if $a(z_1 + \mu) + z_2 + \mu < 0$ (8) is applied to find the next intersection with $y = 0$ (i.e. Σ) on the surface $x = 0$ (i.e. Π), which is

$$\begin{aligned} (z_1'', z_2'') &= (\alpha a + b, \beta a + c)(z_1 + \mu) \\ &\quad + (\alpha, \beta)(z_2 + \mu) + (z_2, 0). \end{aligned} \quad (10)$$

Thus, writing $Z_1 = z_1 + \mu$ and $Z_2 = z_2 + \mu$, the dynamics of solutions that go once or twice round the cycle in $y > 0$ before having a sliding segment can be described by the maps

$$(z_1'', z_2'') = \begin{cases} (\alpha, \beta)Z_1 + (Z_2 - \mu, 0) & \text{if } Z_1 < 0, \\ (\alpha, \beta)(aZ_1 + Z_2) + (b, c)Z_1 & \text{if } Z_1 > 0 \\ \text{and } aZ_1 + Z_2 < 0, \\ \text{undefined} & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \quad (11)$$

Writing these evolution equations using coordinates Z_1 and Z_2 throughout and replacing the iteration double primes with single primes, we obtain

$$(Z_1', Z_2') = F(Z_1, Z_2; \mu) \quad (12)$$

where F is defined by

$$F(Z_1, Z_2; \mu) = \begin{cases} (\alpha Z_1 + Z_2, \beta Z_1 + \mu) & \text{if } Z_1 \leq 0, \\ (\alpha a + b, \beta a + c)Z_1 \\ \quad + (\alpha, \beta)Z_2 + \mu(1, 1) & \text{if } Z_1 > 0 \\ \text{and } aZ_1 + Z_2 < 0, \\ \text{undefined} & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases} \quad (13)$$

where the term ‘undefined’ indicates that further analysis is required to determine the next intersection after a sliding segment. It will be useful to refer to the two maps as

$$F_1(Z_1, Z_2; \mu) = (\alpha Z_1 + Z_2, \beta Z_1 + \mu), \quad Z_1 \leq 0, \quad (14)$$

and

$$F_2(Z_1, Z_2; \mu) = ((\alpha a + b)Z_1 + \alpha Z_2 + \mu, (\beta a + c)Z_1 + \beta Z_2 + \mu), \quad (15)$$

so

$$F(Z_1, Z_2; \mu) = \begin{cases} F_1(Z_1, Z_2; \mu) & \text{if } Z_1 \leq 0, \\ F_2(Z_1, Z_2; \mu) & \text{if } Z_1 \geq 0. \end{cases} \quad (16)$$

The ambiguity allowed here if $Z_1 = 0$ will be resolved shortly.

Now let

$$\begin{aligned} D_1 &= \{(Z_1, Z_2) \mid Z_1 \leq 0, \quad aZ_1 + Z_2 < 0\}, \\ D_2 &= \{(Z_1, Z_2) \mid Z_1 \geq 0, \quad aZ_1 + Z_2 < 0\}, \end{aligned} \quad (17)$$

and

$$D = D_1 \cup D_2. \quad (18)$$

Lemma 1 *The map $G : D \times \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ defined by*

$$G(Z_1, Z_2; \mu) = \begin{cases} F_1^2(Z_1, Z_2; \mu) & \text{if } (Z_1, Z_2) \in D_1 \\ F_2(Z_1, Z_2; \mu) & \text{if } (Z_1, Z_2) \in D_2 \end{cases} \quad (19)$$

is continuous, and if there exists $N > 0$ such that $G^k(Z_1, Z_2; \mu) \in D$ for $k = 0, \dots, N$, then

$$G^k(Z_1, Z_2; \mu) = F^m(Z_1, Z_2; \mu) \quad (20)$$

where $m = k + j_k$ and j_k is the number of times the map in D_1 is used in the iteration of G .

Note that if $G^k(Z_1, Z_2; \mu) = (0, \zeta)$ for some ζ then there is a choice about whether to apply the map defined in D_1 or the map in D_2 . We assume in the statement of the lemma that the same choice is made in the evaluation of both G and F . The continuity of G implies that this makes no difference to the eventual orbit (this is the inevitable ambiguity of a grazing solution).

The importance of this lemma is that it implies that if G has an attractor in D then there is a corresponding attractor of F in $\{Z_1 \leq 0\} \cup D_2$, and the action of G restricted to this set is linearly conjugate to the attractor of a border collision normal form with appropriately chosen parameters. These results are formalized in Corollaries 2 and 3 below.

Proof of Lemma 1: If $(Z_1, Z_2) \in D_1$ then $F(Z_1, Z_2; \mu) = F_1(Z_1, Z_2; \mu) = (\alpha Z_1 + Z_2, \beta Z_1 + \mu)$ and so $F_1(Z_1, Z_2; \mu) \in \{Z_1 \leq 0\}$ by the definition of D_1 and $F^2(Z_1, Z_2; \mu) = F(F_1(Z_1, Z_2; \mu); \mu) = F_1^2(Z_1, Z_2; \mu)$ and by direct calculation this is

$$((\alpha^2 + \beta)Z_1 + \alpha Z_2 + \mu, \alpha\beta Z_1 + \beta Z_2 + \mu), \quad (Z_1, Z_2) \in D_1. \quad (21)$$

In particular, F_1^2 is well defined for $(Z_1, Z_2) \in D_1$. Since F_1 and F_2 are continuous, G is continuous provided it is continuous on $Z_1 = 0$, and by (21)

$$F_1^2(0, Z_1; \mu) = (\alpha Z_2 + \mu, \beta Z_2 + \mu) = F_2(0, Z_2; \mu)$$

where the second equality follows from (15). Hence G is continuous and the equality (20) follows as $G = F^2$ on D_1 and $G = F$ on D_2 . □

Corollary 2 *If $G|_D$ has an attracting set then F has an attracting set in $\{Z_1 \leq 0\} \cup D_2$.*

This is obvious from Lemma 1.

Corollary 3 *If $G|_D$ has an attracting set then $G|_D$ is linearly conjugate to the border collision normal form restricted to some appropriate domain $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$ containing at least one attractor. The parameters of the border collision normal form can be chosen so that*

$$A_L = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha^2 + 2\beta & 1 \\ -\beta^2 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad A_R = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha a + b + \beta & 1 \\ -(\beta b - \alpha c) & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (22)$$

with $\text{sign}(\nu) = \text{sign}(\mu)$, where ν corresponds to the parameter of the border collision normal form as in (1).

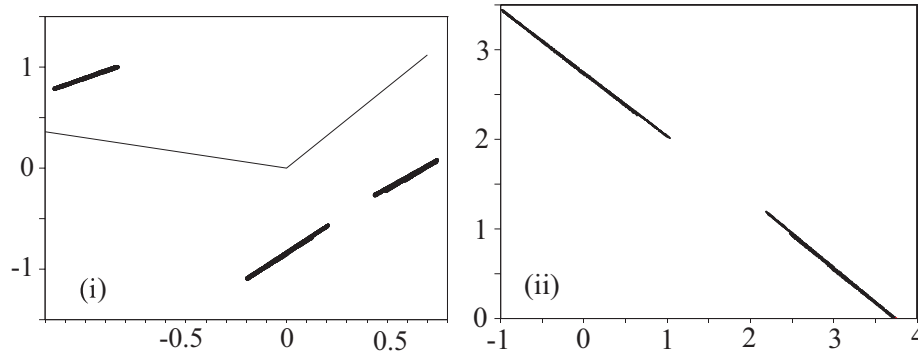


FIG. 2: The thin attractor. (i) The attractor of grazing sliding map with parameters (23) also showing the boundary of D . (ii) The attractor of the border collision normal form with parameters (24)

Proof: The determinant and trace of the two linear maps (15) and (21) are easy to calculate and the coordinate changes are essentially those used by Nusse and Yorke to obtain the normal form [14]. (The first column of the border collision normal form is the trace and minus the determinant of the map.) The only complication is the sign of μ (by a linear rescaling it is only the sign of μ that determines the dynamics), and this follows from the observation that $G(0, 0; \mu) = (\mu, \mu)$ which is in D_2 if $\mu > 0$ and $Z_1 \leq 0$ if $\mu < 0$. The corresponding point for the border collision normal form is also $(0, 0)$, hence the result. □

IV. TWO EXAMPLES

The results of the previous section establish a formal connection between the attractors of the linearized grazing-sliding normal form F , an induced map G and the border collision normal form. However, the attractor of G must lie in the region D of equation (18) for the results to be applicable, and we have not established conditions for this to be the case. In particular it might never be the case!

In this section we show numerically that there are attractors with the desired properties, and hence that there is content in the results described above. The two examples are chosen to illustrate different geometries of the attractor – in the first the attractor is nearly a union of curves (though it actually appears to have a fractal structure) and in the second the attractor occupies a much larger region of phase space.

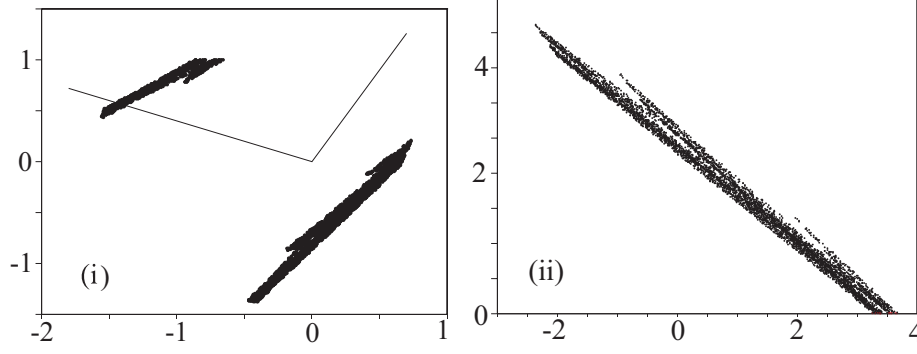


FIG. 3: The thick attractor, as Figure 2 but using parameters (25) and (26).

The first example is illustrated in Figure 2. This has parameters

$$\begin{aligned} a &= -1.6, & b &= -1.15, & c &= -1.15, \\ \alpha &= 0.3, & \beta &= 1.1, & \mu &= 1; \end{aligned} \quad (23)$$

for F , which translate to

$$\begin{aligned} T_L &= 2.29, & D_L &= 1.21, & T_R &= -0.53, \\ D_R &= -0.92, & \nu &= 1; \end{aligned} \quad (24)$$

for the border collision normal form, with T_L the trace of A_L , D_L the determinant of A_L and similarly for A_R . The attractor of F is shown in Figure 2(i) (and the attractor for G is the part shown in the region D), whilst the attractor of the corresponding border collision normal form is shown in Figure 2(ii).

The second example is illustrated in Figure 3 with the same layout and

$$\begin{aligned} a &= -1.8, & b &= -1.4, & c &= -1.4, \\ \alpha &= 0.4, & \beta &= 1.2, & \mu &= 1; \end{aligned} \quad (25)$$

for F , which translate to

$$\begin{aligned} T_L &= 2.56, & D_L &= 1.44, & T_R &= -0.92, \\ D_R &= -1.12, & \nu &= 1; \end{aligned} \quad (26)$$

V. THE GENERAL CASE

The results of section III used a special choice for the return map of the grazing orbit and restricted to only four dimensions, leading to a two-dimensional model. This was done so that the geometry could be easily appreciated and examples found. In this section we consider the general

case, both in terms of the return map and the dimension, and show that results analogous to those of section III hold again, with the border collision normal form of Nusse and Yorke replaced by the $(n - 2)$ -dimensional generalization of di Bernardo [2, 5].

The following two Lemmas express these in a convenient form, without loss of generality.

Lemma 4 *The return map on Π in $x > 0$ can be generally written near the periodic orbit as*

$$\begin{pmatrix} y' \\ \underline{z}' \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a & \underline{u}^\top \\ \underline{b} & \underline{U} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} y \\ \underline{z} \end{pmatrix} + \mu \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \underline{0} \end{pmatrix} \quad (27)$$

where the constant coefficients include a column vector of zeros $\underline{0}$, the scalar a , and $(n - 2)$ dimensional vectors \underline{b} , \underline{u} , and square matrix \underline{U} , given by

$$\underline{b} = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \vdots \\ b_{n-2} \end{pmatrix}, \quad \underline{u} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \underline{U} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & \dots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (28)$$

Lemma 5 *The discontinuity map to Π can be generally written near the periodic orbit as*

$$\begin{pmatrix} y'' \\ \underline{z}'' \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \underline{0}^\top \\ \underline{\alpha} & \underline{1} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} y' \\ \underline{z}' \end{pmatrix} \quad (29)$$

where $\underline{1}$ is the $(n - 2) \times (n - 2)$ identity matrix and $\underline{\alpha}$ is the column vector with components $(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_{n-1})$.

The proofs of these lemmas is given in Appendix A. Let us briefly review how they are applied to obtain a general orbit returning to $x = y = 0$. Applying P_Π to a point $(0, \underline{z})$ on $\Pi \cap \Sigma$ gives a return coordinate $(y', \underline{z}') = P_\Pi(0, \underline{z})$ on Π , which neglects the existence of the discontinuity. This omission is corrected by applying the discontinuity mapping P_{DM} . If $y' < 0$ then P_{DM} maps (y', \underline{z}') to a point $(0, \underline{z}'')$ on $\Pi \cap \Sigma$. If $y' > 0$ then the orbit has missed the switching surface and we apply P_Π again, and do so repeatedly until the image coordinate $y'' \dots$ under P_Π becomes negative, which is only then corrected by applying P_{DM} to give the return to $\Pi \cap \Sigma$. We are interested only in orbits that eventually slide, and hence return to the set $x = y = 0$.

A point $(0, 0, \underline{z})$ that first returns to some $(0, 0, \underline{z}'')$ on its m^{th} return to Π is described by a map

from $\Pi \cap \Sigma \times \mathbb{R}$ to $\Pi \cap \Sigma$, given by

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \underline{z}'' \end{pmatrix} &= P_{DM} \circ P_{\Pi}^m(0, \underline{z}; \mu) \\ &= C\Lambda^m \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \underline{z} \end{pmatrix} + \\ &\quad \mu C(\Lambda^{m-1} + \Lambda^{m-2} + \dots + I) \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \underline{0} \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned} \quad (30)$$

where C and Λ are the $(n-1)$ -dimensional square matrices defined in (27) and (29) respectively.

Taking only the \underline{z} part gives a map on the grazing set $x = y = 0$, namely

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{z}'' &= F_m(\underline{z}; \mu) \\ &= (\underline{\alpha}, \underline{1}) \cdot \left[\Lambda^m \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \underline{z} \end{pmatrix} + \right. \\ &\quad \left. \mu(\Lambda^{m-1} + \Lambda^{m-2} + \dots + I) \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \underline{0} \end{pmatrix} \right]. \end{aligned} \quad (31)$$

The domain of F_m is

$$\begin{aligned} \{ \underline{z} \in \mathbb{R}^{n-2} : [P_{\Pi}^m(0, \underline{z}; \mu)]^{(y)} \leq 0 \leq [P_{\Pi}^i(0, \underline{z}; \mu)]^{(y)}, \\ \forall i \in [1, m-1] \}. \end{aligned}$$

At first sight there may appear to be a contradiction: how can a continuous flow give rise to a discontinuous return map? The explanation is shown in Figure 4: the discontinuities are caused by grazing, in whose vicinity the flow can hit the switching surface, or miss it and take some finite time before returning again. Continuity is restored by considering the maps describing grazing orbits in the following way. Consider the orbit of a point \underline{z} that grazes upon its κ^{th} return to Π , and subsequently slides during its m^{th} to Π such that $0 < \kappa < m$. The m^{th} iterate is given equivalently by both

$$\underline{z} \mapsto F_m(\underline{z}; \mu) \quad \text{and} \quad \underline{z} \mapsto F_{m-\kappa} \circ F_{\kappa}(\underline{z}; \mu). \quad (32)$$

This condition is illustrated in Figure 4. More precisely, such an orbit satisfies the conditions $[P_{\Pi} \circ P_{\kappa-1}(0, \underline{z}; \mu)]^{(y)} = 0$ (grazing on the κ^{th} iteration), and $[P_{\Pi} \circ P_{m-1}(0, \underline{z}; \mu)]^{(y)} < 0 < [P_{\Pi} \circ P_{j-1}(0, \underline{z}; \mu)]^{(y)}$ for $j \in [1, \kappa-1] \cup [\kappa+1, m-1]$ (sliding only on the m^{th} iteration).

Henceforth we are only interested in orbits that wind around in $y \geq 0$ twice before returning to $x = y = 0$, given by F_1^2 or F_2 , the difference being that the discontinuity mapping is applied in both windings of F_1^2 , but only the second winding of F_2 .

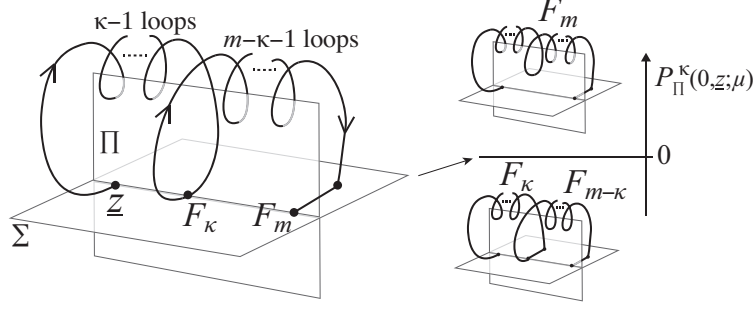


FIG. 4: The continuity condition between F_m and $F_{m-\kappa} \circ F_\kappa$.

We now return to the results of Lemmas 4 and 5 and, as in section III, define the shifted coordinates $Z_i = z_i + \mu$ for all $i = 1, 2, \dots, n-2$. The map G defined in Lemma 1, for orbits that wind around twice in $y \geq 0$ before returning to $x = y = 0$, can be calculated in n -dimensions directly from Lemmas 4 and 5. It consists of the Poincaré map composed with the discontinuity map, given by

$$F_0(\underline{Z}; \mu) = (\alpha_1 Z_1 + Z_2, \alpha_2 Z_1 + Z_3 + \mu, \alpha_3 Z_1 + Z_4, \dots, \alpha_{n-3} Z_1 + Z_{n-2}, \alpha_{n-2} Z_1 + \mu), \quad (33)$$

if $Z_1 < 0$, and of two applications of the Poincaré map composed with the discontinuity map, which gives

$$F_1(\underline{Z}; \mu) = ((\alpha_1 a + b_1) Z_1 + \alpha_1 Z_2 + Z_3, (\alpha_2 a + b_2) Z_1 + \alpha_2 Z_2 + Z_4, (\alpha_3 a + b_3) Z_1 + \alpha_3 Z_2 + Z_5, \dots, \quad (34)$$

$$(\alpha_{n-4} a + b_{n-4}) Z_1 + \alpha_{n-4} Z_2 + Z_{n-2}, (\alpha_{n-3} a + b_{n-3}) Z_1 + \alpha_{n-3} Z_2 + \mu, (\alpha_{n-2} a + b_{n-2}) Z_1 + \alpha_{n-2} Z_2 + \mu). \quad (35)$$

if $Z_1 > 0$ and $aZ_1 + Z_2 < 0$.

Let $\underline{Z} = (Z_1, Z_2, \dots, Z_{n-2})$. Then the regions D_0 and D_1 of (17) on (Z_1, Z_2) become (with the obvious abuse of notation)

$$D_0 = \{ \underline{Z} \in \mathbb{R}^{n-2} \mid Z_1 \leq 0, \alpha Z_1 + Z_2 < 0 \}, \quad (36)$$

$$D_1 = \{ \underline{Z} \in \mathbb{R}^{n-2} \mid Z_1 \geq 0, aZ_1 + Z_2 < 0 \},$$

and if $D = D_0 \cup D_1$ then the general form of Lemma 1 is:

Lemma 6 *The map $G : D \times \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n-2}$ defined by*

$$G(\underline{Z}; \mu) = \begin{cases} F_0^2(\underline{Z}; \mu) & \text{if } \underline{Z} \in D_0 \\ F_1(\underline{Z}; \mu) & \text{if } \underline{Z} \in D_1 \end{cases} \quad (37)$$

is continuous and if there exists $N > 0$ such that $G^k(\underline{Z}; \mu) \in D$ for $k = 0, \dots, N$, then

$$G^k(\underline{Z}; \mu) = F^m(\underline{Z}; \mu) \quad (38)$$

where $m = k + j_k$ and j_k is the number of times the map in D_0 is used in the iteration of G up to the k^{th} iterate.

Corollary 7 *If $G|_D$ has an attracting set then $G|_D$ is linearly conjugate to the border collision normal form restricted to some appropriate domain $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$ containing at least one attractor.*

VI. HIGH DIMENSIONAL EXAMPLES

As in the four dimensional case, the analysis of the previous section shows a correspondence between solutions of the grazing-sliding normal form and the border collision normal form provided that some conditions hold; in particular the attractor of the appropriate iterates of the grazing-sliding normal form must lie in the region $D_1 \cup D_2$. As before, analytical conditions for the existence of such an attractor have not been established. The aim of this section is to provide two examples, one in 20 dimensions and one in 100 dimensions, to show that there are parameters at which these conditions are satisfied. Both examples are extensions of the second example of section IV.

The first, in \mathbb{R}^{20} (so applicable to flows in \mathbb{R}^{22}), takes the system defined by (33) and (34) with

$$\begin{aligned} a &= -1.8, & b_1 &= -1.4, & b_2 &= -1.4, \\ b_r &= 0.05, & r &= 3, \dots, 20, \\ \alpha_1 &= 0.4, & \alpha_2 &= 1.2, \\ \alpha_r &= -0.05, & r &= 3, \dots, 20, & \mu &= 1. \end{aligned} \quad (39)$$

Figure 5 shows the projection onto the (Z_1, Z_2) plane of the attractor, together with the half-lines $aZ_1 + Z_2 = 0$ (in $Z_1 < 0$) and $\alpha_1 Z_1 + Z_2 = 0$ (in $Z_1 > 0$). As in the low dimensional example this shows that the attractor is in two parts, one of which is below these lines and it is here that the induced map can be defined, the other is the image of the subset of this part of the attractor that lies in $Z_1 < 0$, and this is also in $Z_1 < 0$ as it must be for F_1^2 to be defined for the induced map. 10000 iterates are shown after an initial transient of 501 iterates from the initial condition

$$\begin{aligned} z_1 &= -0.001, & z_2 &= -0.005, \\ z_r &= 0, & r &= 3, \dots, 20. \end{aligned}$$

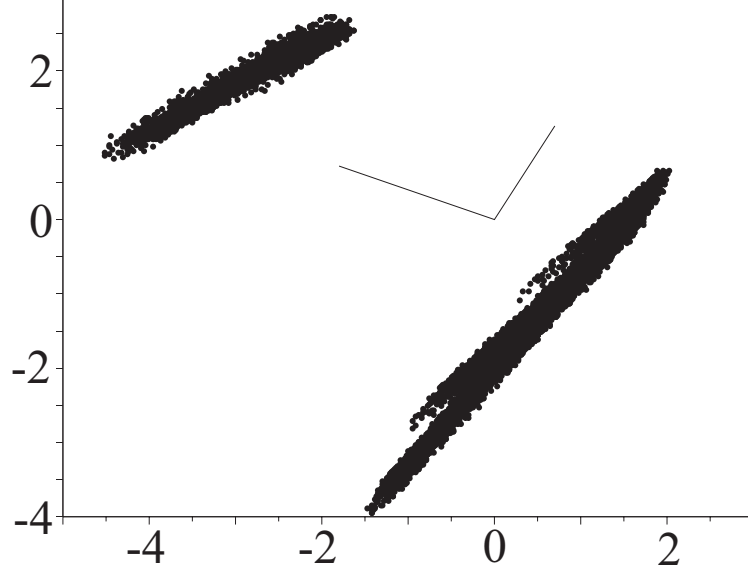


FIG. 5: The attractor in \mathbb{R}^{20} , projected onto the first two coordinates. See text for parameter values, (39).

We have verified that the picture remains effectively unchanged after 100000 iterates.

The second attractor, shown in Figure 6 is in \mathbb{R}^{100} (so applicable to flows in \mathbb{R}^{102}), which is large enough to support a conjecture that parameter values exist such that the induced map (37) is well-defined in any finite dimension. Here we have chosen the parameters

$$\begin{aligned}
 a &= -1.8, & b_1 &= -1.4, & b_2 &= -1.4, \\
 b_r &= 0.05, & r &= 3, \dots, 100, \\
 \alpha_1 &= 0.2, & \alpha_2 &= 0.8, \\
 \alpha_r &= -0.0005, & r &= 3, \dots, 100, & \mu &= 1,
 \end{aligned} \tag{40}$$

with initial condition

$$\begin{aligned}
 z_1 &= -0.001, & z_2 &= -0.005, \\
 z_r &= 0, & r &= 3, \dots, 100.
 \end{aligned}$$

The figure also shows the two half lines that define $D_1 \cup D_2$ and the structure is similar to that of the example of Figure 5, as expected. Note that the magnitude of the α_i are significantly smaller than those used in (39); the solutions are unbounded if larger values are used. Again, 10000 iterates are shown after discarding 501 to avoid transients, and the same result is observed (a bounded attractor indistinguishable by eye) if 100000 iterates are used.

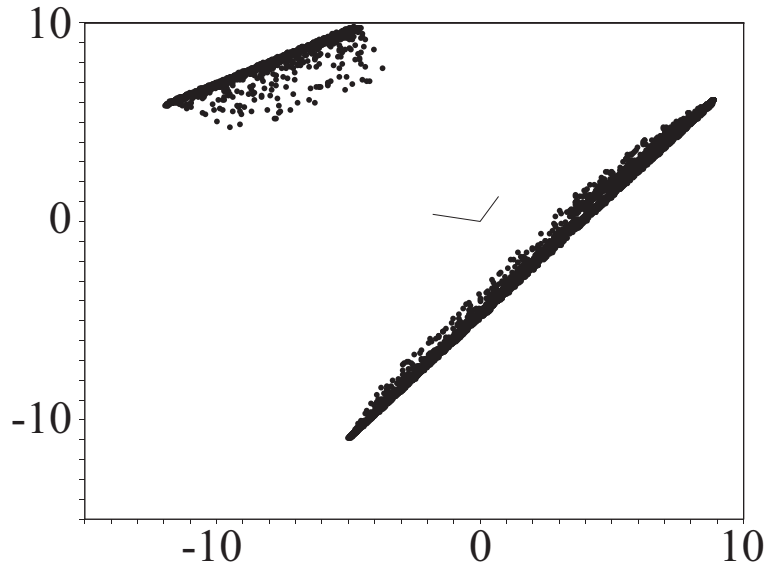


FIG. 6: The attractor in \mathbb{R}^{100} , projected onto the first two coordinates. See text for parameter values, (40).

VII. THE CURSE OF DIMENSIONALITY

The phrase ‘the curse of dimensionality’ is used in numerical analysis to describe methods that work well in low dimensions but take an absurdly long time to apply in higher dimensions. We believe that the results above show that nonsmooth bifurcation theory suffers from a similar problem. To be more specific, the connection between grazing-sliding and border collisions shows that complexity in the border collision normal form – in particular the fact that the number of different types of attractor that can exist – increases with dimension, so new possible dynamic behaviour arise as the dimension of the problem increases. This is in marked contrast to smooth bifurcation theory where, for local bifurcations for example, the dimension of the bifurcating system can be reduced to the dimension of the centre eigenspace, which will be one or two dimensions generically.

We shall illustrate this increasing complexity with a simple example, taking the matrices in (3) as

$$A_L = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 1 \\ 2 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (41)$$

and

$$A_R = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 1 \\ -2 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (42)$$

and letting $\nu = 1$, so the constant term in the border collision normal form is

$$(1, 0, 0, \dots, 0, 0)^\top. \quad (43)$$

Theorem 8 *Consider the m -dimensional border collision normal form with A_L and A_R given by (41), (42) and $\nu = 1$. Then there is an invariant m -dimensional hypercube \mathcal{C} such that: (a) the Lebesgue measure is an invariant measure on \mathcal{C} ; (b) the Lyapunov exponent of almost all points is positive on \mathcal{C} ; (c) periodic orbits are dense in \mathcal{C} ; (d) there is topological transitivity on \mathcal{C} ; and (e) the map has sensitive dependence on initial conditions on \mathcal{C} .*

Proof: Let \mathcal{C} be the hypercube with 2^m vertices (u, v_2, \dots, v_m) with $u \in \{-1, +1\}$ and $v_k \in \{-2, 0\}$, $k = 2, \dots, m$. The discontinuity surface $z = 0$ divides \mathcal{C} into two cubes, \mathcal{C}_0 in $z \leq 0$ and \mathcal{C}_1 in $z \geq 0$, so \mathcal{C}_0 has vertices (u_0, v_2, \dots, v_m) with $u_0 \in \{-1, 0\}$ and v_k as before, and \mathcal{C}_1 has vertices (u_1, v_2, \dots, v_m) with $u_1 \in \{0, +1\}$.

We will show that $F(\mathcal{C}_r) = \mathcal{C}$ for $r = 0, 1$, (we omit the parameter from F since we have set $\nu = 1$), by looking at the action of the map on the vertices (since the map is affine, if the vertices of \mathcal{C}_r are mapped to those of \mathcal{C} , then the whole of \mathcal{C}_r maps to \mathcal{C}).

Consider \mathcal{C}_0 . The image of (u_0, v_2, \dots, v_m) is

$$(v_2 + 1, v_3, \dots, v_m, 2u_0) \quad (44)$$

and since $v_2 \in \{-2, 0\}$, $v_2 + 1 \in \{-1, 1\}$, and v_3 to v_m are each in $\{-2, 0\}$. Finally, $2u_0 \in \{-2, 0\}$ as $u_0 \in \{-1, 0\}$ and this shows that vertices of \mathcal{C}_0 map to vertices of \mathcal{C} , clearly on a one-to-one basis, and hence $F(\mathcal{C}_0) = \mathcal{C}$. The argument for \mathcal{C}_1 is similar.

This establishes that $\mathcal{C} = \mathcal{C}_0 \cup \mathcal{C}_1$ is invariant and $F(\mathcal{C}_r) = \mathcal{C}$, $r = 0, 1$.

(a) *Invariance of Lebesgue measure*

First note that the modulus of the determinant of the linear part of the map describes how volumes (Lebesgue measure, ℓ) is changed, so if B is a measurable set in $x > 0$ or in $x < 0$ then $\ell(F(B)) = 2\ell(B)$.

Since $F(\mathcal{C}_r) = \mathcal{C}$, $r = 0, 1$, for any measurable $B \subset \mathcal{C}$ there exist $P_i \in \mathcal{C}_i$, $i = 0, 1$ such that $F(P_i) = B$ and $\ell(B) = 2\ell(P_i)$. In other words

$$\ell(B) = \ell(P_0) + \ell(P_1) = F^{-1}(B)$$

which is the condition for a measure to be invariant under F .

(b) *Positive Lyapunov exponents*

This is a simple calculation. Iterating the relation (44) n times (bearing in mind that the coefficient 2 could be either plus or minus two in the general case) shows that for a general point $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$

$$F^m(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 + \sigma_1 2x_1 \\ \sigma_2 2(1 + x_2) \\ \vdots \\ \sigma_m 2(1 + x_m) \end{pmatrix}$$

where $\sigma_k \in \{-1, +1\}$. Hence the linear part (the Jacobian) of the m^{th} iterate of the map is

$$2\text{diag}(\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \dots, \sigma_m)$$

and hence every point in \mathcal{C} has m Lyapunov exponents equal to $\frac{1}{m} \log 2$. (Note that this could be deduced using the Cayley-Hamilton Theorem and the fact that the characteristic equation of the linear parts of the map are $\lambda^m \pm 2 = 0$.)

(c-e) *Locally eventually onto (LEO)*

We shall prove the final three statements using a property called locally eventually onto [9]. The map F is LEO on \mathcal{C} if for any open set $B \subset \mathcal{C}$ there exists $U \subset B$ and $m > 0$ such that $F^m(U) = \mathcal{C}$ and F^m is a homeomorphism on U . This clearly implies that a map is topologically transitive (i.e. for all open U, V there exists $m > 0$ such that $F^m(U) \cap V \neq \emptyset$) and has periodic orbits dense, and this is enough to guarantee sensitive dependence on initial conditions.

By being a little more careful about the calculation leading to (44) we can show that if $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m)$ then $F^n(\mathbf{x}) = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_m)$ with

$$X_1 = \begin{cases} 1 - 2x_1 & \text{if } x_1 > 0 \\ 1 + 2x_1 & \text{if } x_1 < 0 \end{cases} \quad (45)$$

and for $k = 2, \dots, m$,

$$X_k = \begin{cases} -2(1 + x_k) & \text{if } 1 + x_k > 0 \\ 2(1 + x_k) & \text{if } 1 + x_k < 0 \end{cases}. \quad (46)$$

In other words, both the coordinates decouple and satisfy a rescaled tent map for the m^{th} iterate; with the tent map defined on $[-1, 1]$ for x_1 and $[-2, 0]$ for the other coordinates.

The tent map T clearly satisfies the LEO property, and if U is such that $T^m(U)$ covers the interval on which it is defined and is a homeomorphism, then for any $M > m$ there exists $U_M \in U$ such that $T^M(U_M)$ covers the interval on which the tent map is defined and is a homeomorphism.

Now consider an open set $B \subset \mathcal{C}$. Then this clearly contains a rectangle $I_1 \times \cdots \times I_m$ with $I_1 \subset [-1, 1]$ and $i_k \subset [-2, 0]$, $k = 2, \dots, m$. Each of these contains an interval on which the corresponding tent map is LEO, and by taking the maximum of the iterates used, there are intervals V_j , $j = 1, \dots, m$ and $N > 0$ such that the N^{th} iterate of the appropriate tent map has the LEO property (with the same N for all j). Hence by definition if $V = V_1 \times \cdots \times V_m$ then

$$F^{mN}(V) = \mathcal{C} \quad \text{and} \quad F^{MN}|_V \text{ is a homeomorphism}$$

so F is LEO on \mathcal{C} .

□

Of course, \mathcal{C} is not an attractor in the sense of the existence of an attracting neighbourhood, but like the logistic map with parameter equal to 4, $f(x) = 4x(1 - x)$, points outside the region tend to infinity. On the other hand it does ‘attract’ all points inside it and has the same dimension as the ambient space. By a small perturbation this can be made into a more conventional attractor, but we do not consider this more technical issue here.

This example can be modified to prove the existence of k dimensional attractors for all $k \in \mathbb{N}$, $k \leq m$.

Theorem 9 *For each $k \in \mathbb{N}$, $k \leq m$, there exist parameters of the m -dimensional border collision normal form with an invariant set of dimension k and if $k \neq 0$ then the invariant set has the properties (a)-(e) described in Theorem 8 in the k non-trivial dimensions of the invariant set.*

Proof: There is no particular reason to use the border collision normal form, as any piecewise affine map defined separately in $y < 0$ and $y > 0$ and continuous across the boundary $y = 0$ can be put in this form by a change of coordinate, so we choose the most convenient form to demonstrate the result. If $k = 0$ then we need only to choose a map with a stable fixed point in the appropriate half-plane, so this is easy.

Suppose $k > 0$. Consider the piecewise affine map for $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_m) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ defined by

$$\mathbf{x}_{j+1} = \begin{cases} B_L \mathbf{x}_j + \mathbf{b} & \text{if } x_1 \leq 0 \\ B_R \mathbf{x}_j + \mathbf{b} & \text{if } x_1 > 0 \end{cases} \quad (47)$$

with

$$\mathbf{b}^\top = (1, 0, \dots, 0)$$

and

$$B_K = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 2\sigma_K & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & q_1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & \dots & q_{m-k} \end{pmatrix} \quad (48)$$

($K = R, L$) with $\sigma_R = -1$, $\sigma_L = +1$ and $|q_r| < 1$, $1 \leq r \leq m - k$. So B_k has a $k \times k$ block with the same structure as (41) or (42) and an $(m - k) \times (m - k)$ block which is diagonal and the diagonal components with modulus less than one. Thus the second $m - k$ components of \mathbf{x} decay to zero exponentially, whilst the behaviour of the first k components is as described in Theorem 8. Note that if $k = 1$ the dynamics in x_1 is determined by the tent map (as the x_2 component tends to zero).

□

VIII. CONCLUSION

We have shown how the border collision normal form in $n - 2$ dimensions arises naturally in the linearised model of the grazing=sliding bifurcation for flows in $n \geq 4$ dimensions (note that the equivalent result in three dimensions, where the one-dimensional border collision normal form is a continuous piecewise linear map, was been described in [7, 8]). We have also given examples of this correspondence with $n = 4$. Note that we have not shown that all possible border collision normal forms can arise this way (indeed we believe this cannot be the case in general, and this is certainly not the case if $n = 3$ [8]). For $n > 4$ we have shown examples in 100 dimensions which certainly suggest that the connection between the border collision and grazing-sliding bifurcations holds for arbitrary (finite) dimension.

In the final section we have shown that the border collision normal form in m dimensions has parameters for which there is an attractor with topological dimension k for all $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, m$,

and this, together with the possible link to grazing-sliding bifurcations, suggest that dimensionality poses a problem for nonsmooth bifurcation theory.

To simplify the preliminary description of grazing-sliding, we began by assuming a periodic orbit that formed a single connected path on one side of the switching surface (i.e. $y \geq 0$). The analysis in this paper, however, applies equally if the orbit intersects the switching surface far from the grazing point, so long as it does so transversally, and involves only crossing or attracting sliding, (but not repelling sliding, which involves forward time ambiguity of solutions, a different matter altogether, see e.g. [11]). A segment of sliding far from the grazing point has the effect of reducing the rank of the Jacobian of the global return map P_{Π} by one. In the observer canonical normal form this means setting the determinant of the Jacobian, the parameter b_{n-2} in (28) (up to a sign), to zero. Following the ensuing analysis in Section V with $b_{n-2} = 0$ suggests no significant effect on the border collision normal form, and therefore no obvious effect on the attractors permitted by it.

This paper leaves a number of different questions unanswered about the detail and multiplicity of stable solutions. However, the analysis simplifies some aspects of nonsmooth bifurcation theory by showing how two hitherto separate problems are connected, whilst at the same time complicating other aspects of the theory by pointing out the possible curse of dimensionality inherent in the description of bifurcating solutions.

Acknowledgments. PG is partially funded by EPSRC grant EP/E050441/1. MRJ is supported by EPSRC Grant Ref: EP/J001317/1.

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Appendix A: Proof of transformation results

Consider the n -dimensional system of piecewise smooth ordinary differential equations (4). Let there exist a periodic orbit in $h > 0$ that grazes the switching surface, $h = 0$, at the origin $(x, y, \underline{z}) = 0$ when $\mu = 0$. Without loss of generality this can be described as follows. Let $x = 0$ define a Poincaré section Π on which we define a return map $P_\Pi(x, y, \underline{z}; \mu)$, with a fixed point $P_\Pi(0, 0, \underline{0}; 0) = 0$. Choose y so that the switching surface lies at $y = 0$. We require that the periodic orbit ceases grazing when μ varies, so

$$\left. \frac{\partial(P \cdot \nabla h)}{\partial \mu} \right|_{(x, y, \underline{z}; \mu) = (0, 0, \underline{0}; 0)} \neq 0. \quad (\text{A1})$$

Let \mathbf{y} be the column vector with components $(y, z_1, z_2, \dots, z_{n-2})$. The linear approximation of P_Π can be written as

$$P_\Pi(\mathbf{y}) = \Lambda \mathbf{y} + \mu \mathbf{b}, \quad (\text{A2})$$

where \mathbf{b} and Λ are $(n - 1)$ dimensional vectors and square matrices respectively.

For grazing to occur, there must be a tangency between the vector field f^+ and the switching surface $y = 0$ at the origin, meaning

$$h = f_+ \cdot \nabla h = 0, \quad \text{at} \quad (x, y, \underline{z}; \mu) = (0, 0, \underline{0}; 0), \quad (\text{A3})$$

where ∇h is the gradient of h in the coordinates x, y, \underline{z} . The vector field f^+ must be curving quadratically away from $y = 0$, while f^- must be pointing towards $y = 0$, so $f_+ \cdot \nabla(f_+ \cdot \nabla h)$ and $f_- \cdot \nabla h$ must be positive at $(x, y, \underline{z}; \mu) = (0, 0, \underline{0}; 0)$.

When μ is nonzero two things can happen, either the orbit given by the fixed point of P_Π lifts into the region $y > 0$, or it dips into the region $y < 0$. In the latter case the map P_Π is no longer valid because the orbit it describes contacts the switching surface. A Poincaré Discontinuity Mapping (see [4]), denoted by P_{DM} , applies the necessary correction to P_Π .

A discontinuity mapping takes account of dynamics that takes place on the switching surface $y = 0$, in this case in the neighbourhood of a grazing point. The flow crosses from $y < 0$ to $y > 0$ in the region

$$\{(x, y, \underline{z}) \in \Sigma : x < 0, y = 0\}. \quad (\text{A4})$$

In the complementary region

$$\{(x, y, \underline{z}) \in \Sigma : x > 0, y = 0\}, \quad (\text{A5})$$

f^+ and f^- both point towards $y = 0$, confining the flow to slide along inside the switching surface, as described in any standard text on piecewise-smooth flows (or *Filippov systems*), e.g. [3]. The sliding vector field is given by

$$(\dot{x}, 0, \dot{\underline{z}}) = f_s(x, \underline{z}; \mu) \quad \text{for} \quad (x, 0, \underline{z}) \in \Sigma_s, \quad (\text{A6})$$

where

$$f_s := \alpha f_+ + (1 - \alpha) f_-, \quad \alpha = \frac{f_-^{(y)}}{f_-^{(y)} - f_+^{(y)}}, \quad (\text{A7})$$

as defined by Filippov [6], where $p^{(q)} = p \cdot \nabla q$ denotes the q component of p .

The Poincaré discontinuity mapping associated with the periodic orbit described above is that associated with a grazing-sliding bifurcation, with linear approximation derived in [4] given by

$$P_{DM}(\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{y} - \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } y > 0, \\ y \mathbf{k}(\mathbf{0}) & \text{if } y < 0, \end{cases} \quad (\text{A8})$$

in terms of the function

$$\mathbf{k} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \underline{c} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \frac{f_-^{(\underline{z})}}{f_-^{(y)}} + \frac{f_{+,x}^{(y)} f_-^{(x)} + f_{+,y}^{(y)} f_-^{(y)} + f_{+,\underline{z}}^{(y)} \cdot f_-^{(\underline{z})}}{f_{+,x}^{(y)} f_+^{(x)} + f_{+,y}^{(y)} \cdot f_+^{(y)}} f_+^{(\underline{z})} \end{pmatrix}. \quad (\text{A9})$$

For conciseness let us define

$$\underline{c}_0 := \underline{c}(\mathbf{0}) \quad \text{and} \quad C := \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \underline{0}^\top \\ \underline{c}_0 & \underline{\underline{1}} \end{pmatrix}, \quad (\text{A10})$$

in terms of which we can then write

$$P_{DM}(\mathbf{y}) = \begin{cases} \mathbf{y} & \text{if } y > 0, \\ C\mathbf{y} & \text{if } y < 0. \end{cases} \quad (\text{A11})$$

With these preliminaries we now prove the transformation results from Section V, namely Lemmas 4, 5, 6, and Corollary 7.

Proof of Lemma 4:

The linearization of the return map on Π in $y > 0$ can be generally written as

$$\mathbf{y}' = M\mathbf{y} + \mathbf{r}, \quad (\text{A12})$$

where \mathbf{r} is an $n - 1$ dimensional column vector, and M is an $(n - 1) \times (n - 1)$ matrix. We neglect higher order terms. Let $\mathbf{s} = (1, 0, 0, \dots)$ and

$$O = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{s} \\ \mathbf{s}M \\ \mathbf{s}M^2 \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{s}M^{n-2} \end{pmatrix} \quad T = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots \\ t_1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots \\ t_2 & t_1 & 1 & 0 & \dots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \dots \\ t_{n-2} & t_{n-3} & t_{n-4} & \dots & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad (\text{A13})$$

where $t_i, i = 1, \dots, n - 1$, are the coefficients of the characteristic polynomial of M , for example t_1 is the trace and $(-1)^n t_{n-1}$ (which doesn't appear in T) is the determinant of M . If O is nonsingular, we can define another matrix $W = TO$ and a new coordinate $\tilde{\mathbf{y}} = W\mathbf{y}$, so that

$$\mathbf{y}' = \tilde{M}\mathbf{y} + \tilde{\mathbf{r}}, \quad (\text{A14})$$

where $\tilde{M} = WMW^{-1}$ and $\tilde{\mathbf{r}} = W\mathbf{r}$. The first row of W is $(1, 0, 0, \dots)$ so the transformation does not touch the first component of \mathbf{y} (the coordinate y which is orthogonal to the switching surface). As proven in [5], \tilde{M} then has the convenient form

$$\tilde{M} = \begin{pmatrix} a & 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots \\ b_1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & \dots \\ b_2 & 0 & 0 & 1 & \dots \\ \vdots & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \dots \\ b_{n-2} & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad (\text{A15})$$

where we replace the symbols $(t_1, t_2, t_3, \dots, t_{n-1})$ with $(a, b_1, b_2, \dots, b_{n-2})$. A simple translation sends the components of $\tilde{\mathbf{r}}$ to $(\mu, 0, 0, \dots)$. This is done by replacing \underline{z} with $\underline{z} - Q\tilde{\mathbf{r}}$ and defining $\mu = r_1 - (1, 0, 0, \dots)Q\tilde{\mathbf{r}}$, where Q is the upper triangular matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} +1 & -1 & +1 & -1 & \dots \\ 0 & +1 & -1 & +1 & \dots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & +1 \end{pmatrix},$$

which gives the result as stated. □

Proof of Lemma 5:

The form of the Poincaré Discontinuity Map P_{DM} is not changed by the transformations performed in the previous lemma, because any transformation matrix (in particular W in the proof above) in which the first row is $(1, 0, 0, \dots)$, only transforms the value of $\underline{\alpha}$ in (29), as is easily shown. □

Proof of Lemma 6:

If $\underline{Z} \in D_0$ then the first component of $F(\underline{Z}; \mu) = F_0(\underline{Z}; \mu)$ is $\alpha_1 Z_1 + Z_2$, and so $F_0(\underline{Z}; \mu) \in \{\underline{Z} \in \mathbb{R}^{n-2} \mid Z_1 \leq 0\}$ by the definition of D_0 , and $F^2(\underline{Z}; \mu) = F(F_0(\underline{Z}; \mu); \mu) = F_0^2(\underline{Z}; \mu)$, which is well defined for $\underline{Z} \in D_0$ and is found by direct calculation. In particular, continuity is provided by

$$\begin{aligned} F_0^2(0, Z_2, \dots, Z_{n-2}; \mu) &= F_1(0, Z_2, \dots, Z_{n-2}; \mu) \\ &= (\alpha_1 Z_2 + Z_3 + \mu, \alpha_2 Z_2 + Z_4 + \mu, \alpha_3 Z_2 + Z_5 + \mu, \dots, \\ &\quad \alpha_{n-4} Z_2 + Z_{n-2} + \mu, \alpha_{n-3} Z_2 + \mu, \alpha_{n-2} Z_2 + \mu), \end{aligned}$$

and therefore since F_0^2 and F_1 are continuous at $Z_1 = 0$, G is continuous. □

Proof of Corollary 7:

The border collision normal form is obtained as follows. Let $\underline{s} = (1, 0, 0, \dots)$, $M_R = \frac{d}{d\underline{Z}} F_1$, and

$$O_R = \begin{pmatrix} \underline{s} \\ \underline{s} M_R \\ \underline{s} M_R^2 \\ \vdots \\ \underline{s} M_R^{n-3} \end{pmatrix} \quad P_R = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots \\ r_1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots \\ r_2 & r_1 & 1 & 0 & \dots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \dots \\ r_{n-3} & r_{n-4} & r_{n-5} & \dots & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad (\text{A16})$$

where r_i are the coefficients of the characteristic polynomial of M_R , for example r_1 is the trace and $(-1)^n r_{n-2}$ is the determinant of M_R . As shown in [5], if O_R is nonsingular, we can define another matrix $W_R = P_R O_R$ and a new coordinate $\underline{Y} = W_R \underline{Z}$, so that the map G is specified by the matrices $A_L = W_R M_L W_R^{-1}$ and $A_R = W_R M_R W_R^{-1}$, which are in the border collision normal form

$$A_L = \begin{pmatrix} l_1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots \\ l_2 & 0 & 1 & 0 & \dots \\ l_3 & 0 & 0 & 1 & \dots \\ \vdots & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \dots \\ l_{n-2} & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad (\text{A17})$$

$$A_R = \begin{pmatrix} r_1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots \\ r_2 & 0 & 1 & 0 & \dots \\ r_3 & 0 & 0 & 1 & \dots \\ \vdots & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \dots \\ r_{n-2} & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{A18})$$

where r_i and l_i are the coefficients of the characteristic polynomials of $M_R = \frac{d}{d\underline{Z}} F_1$ and $M_L = \frac{d}{d\underline{Z}} F_0^2$, respectively.

□